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NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

Monterey , California



THESIS

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IMPROVEMENT OF MANAGERIAL EDUCATION OF JUNIOR
OFFICERS OF THE VENEZUELAN NAVY

by

Igor Alberto Campos

March 1988

Thesis Advisor:

R. A. Weitzman

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IMPROVEMENT OF MANAGERIAL EDUCATION OF JUNIOR OFFICERS IN
VENEZUELAN NAVY

by

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Commander, Venezuelan Navy
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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

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March 1988

ABSTRACT

The Venezuelan Navy, depends on its personnel, equipment, and facilities to successfully accomplish the Navy's mission. Therefore Naval operations rely on the ability of the officers to plan, organize, lead, and control the organization.

Naval officers, whether senior or junior, hold positions as managers. For this reason a study was made of the educational background of officer candidates to determine the amount of management education they have received at the Naval Academy.

From this study it was learned that although naval officers are generally well educated and trained; they are weak in the management area. In this thesis an attempt is made to show the basic elements necessary to improve such managerial education. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations were made to help the managerial development of Venezuela's Naval officers.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A. PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to analyze the present level of managerial education of Junior Officers in the Venezuelan Navy with the intent of providing them with useful elements so that they can improve their managerial competence and in this way achieve efficiency in all their naval duties.

This thesis is an effort to re-examine, evaluate, and define the needs for a better education and self-development in the Management Sciences of Junior Officers, officers who will be capable of confronting the challenges of today and tomorrow.

This study is also addressed to all those in the Naval organization who are concerned with the vital importance of educating future naval officers. This education will provide Junior Officers with the adequate management background needed to accomplish their mission using the management functions of planning, organizing, directing, coordinating and controlling.

B. SCOPE

The successful accomplishment of the Venezuelan Navy's mission depends essentially on the personnel assigned to a

task as well as the equipment and facilities used. For this reason the main thrust of this study is the acknowledgement of the necessity to develop better officers-managers in the Navy from the very beginning of their careers.

When the Junior Officer is assigned to his first charge he begins to use all five traditional functions of management. It is essential that he can plan, organize, lead, and control effectively.

With the rapid modernization of its units since the year 1973, manifested by the acquisition of new German submarines, Italian frigates, and powerful airplanes, the Navy became aware of the value of managerial education. However, this interest has not been developed according to the needs of management. On the contrary, the Navy focused its efforts mainly in the technical area. Unfortunately the Navy can not hire good managers to solve its managerial problems, it must use the available officers and hope that these officers do it well. For this reason it is very important that the Navy has a well rounded career program to improve the management education of all officers, especially for those just beginning their profession.

In general, the managerial aspects which will be examined in this study are those considered the fundamental elements for a Junior Officer. They are: Planning, Organizing, Leading, and Controlling.

C. METHOD

The method of research was a critical review of the present managerial education of Junior Officers. The specific areas of analysis were determined by the personal experience of the author and also through interviews with seven Venezuelan officers assigned to the Naval Postgraduate School and another five officers living in the United States. The principal questions asked in these meeting are contained in Appendix A.

D. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

1. Manager

A manager is an individual who plans, organizes, leads; and controls other individuals in the process of pursuing organizational goals. The manager establishes objectives, motivates, develops communication, maintains cooperation, innovates, develops subordinates, and makes decisions. Managers work with and through other people.

[Ref. 1]

2. Education

Education is progressive utilization of one's own experiences, as well as those of others, in making a better adjustment to the surrounding world. Education is a process that prepares individuals to think independently and critically by teaching one to formulate concepts by rational means. [Ref. 2:p. 115]

3. Management

Management is the process of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the work of organization members and of using all available organizational resources to reach stated organizational goals. [Ref. 1:p. 4]

4. Management Education

Management Education is the process focused on the most desirable development of the motives, attitudes, and habits that will prepare the officer to instruct himself and think for himself. [Ref. 3]

5. Leader

A leader is an individual who by virtue of his/her power, authority, influence, status, prestige, knowledge, personal qualities, or group acceptance can influence and direct the behavior and attitudes of others. [Ref. 2:p. 510]

6. Leadership

Leadership, as used in this study, is defined as the art of influencing and directing men in such a way as to obtain their willing obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation in order to accomplish the Navy mission. [Ref. 4:p. 15]

7. Planning

Planning is the process by which the manager anticipates the future and discovers alternative courses of action open to him. [Ref. 5]

8. Organizing

Organizing is the process by which the structure and allocation of jobs are determined. [Ref. 2:p. 513]

9. Directing

Directing is the process by which actual performance of subordinates is guided toward common goals. Supervising is one aspect of this function at lower levels where physical overseeing of work is possible. [Ref. 2:p. 110]

10. Controlling

Controlling is the process that measures current performance and guides it toward some predetermined goal. [Ref. 2:p. 98]

11. Junior Officer

A Junior Officer is an officer in the first 11 years of his career; includes the ranks of Alferez de Navio (Ensign) three year period, Teniente de Fragata (Lieutenant J.G.) four year period, and Teniente de Navio (Lieutenant) four year period.

E. ASSUMPTIONS

1. The level of Managerial Education taught at The Naval Academy of Venezuela does not provide line officers with adequate elements to manage their duties.
2. We can consider all Junior Officers as managers and as holding managerial positions.
3. Junior Officers do not have an instinctive or natural management competence. This proficiency must be improved through adequate Managerial Education.

4. In Accordance with the Career Program of the Venezuelan Navy, a Junior Officer must wait five years to be included in deeper managerial courses.
5. Each officer candidate should have some general training in the management of men in order to be an effective leader.
6. Managing is a distinct and professional kind of work which can be learned and taught.

II. VENEZUELAN NAVY EDUCATION

The Venezuelan Navy, like other large organizations, is very interested in the education of its personnel. From the beginning of their careers at The Naval Academy or in The Military Orientation Course for reserve officers, Venezuelan Naval Officers are programmed to receive education and training. They continue on this path until they reach top level courses at The Naval War College or at the Institute of Higher Studies of The National Defense. See Figure 2-1. A general analysis of education received by Junior Officers is made in this chapter with particular emphasis in the area of management.

A. SOURCES OF JUNIOR OFFICERS

1. Venezuela Naval Academy

The Naval Academy was established in 1811 for the sole purpose of providing properly educated and trained officers for the naval service. The Naval Academy provides 90 percent of officers for both Fleet and Naval Infantry (Marines) [Ref. 6].

2. Naval Postgraduate School

The Naval Postgraduate School had its beginning in 1968 and its purpose is to provide an adequate military course for those professionals interested in being a part of

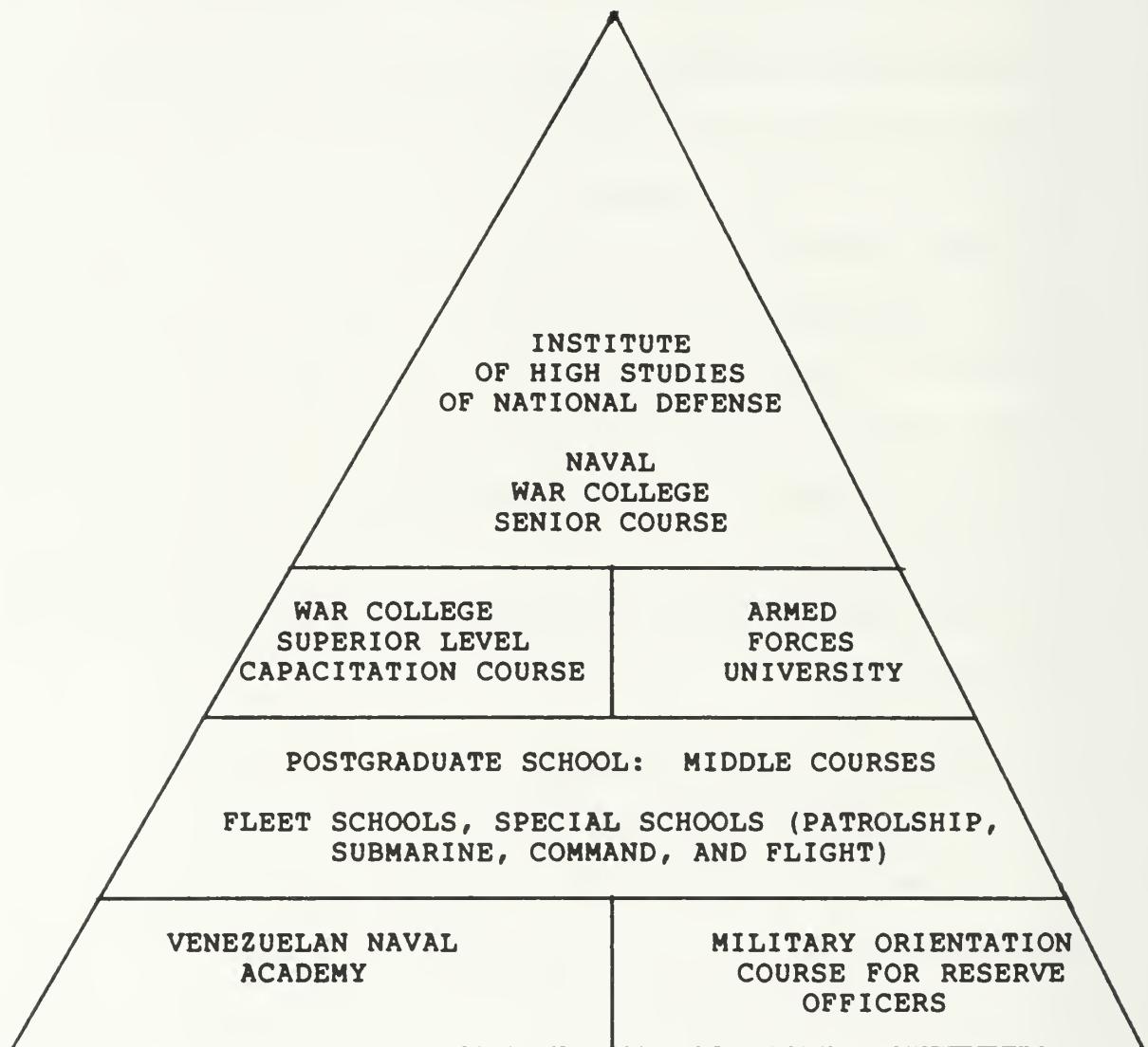


Figure 2.1 Simplified Pyramid of Venezuelan Officers Education and Training.

the Naval Forces. This school educates and trains medical doctors, dentists, engineers, lawyers, and economists during a 14 week period. Following their tour at the Naval Postgraduate School, candidates obtain the rank of Lieutenant, but they are not commissioned in the regular navy. They perform technical and administrative duties, not direct command.

The managerial education of reserve officers is not considered in this study because the navy requires an adequate level of knowledge in management before accepting any candidate as a reserve officer. Reserve Officers receive this education at their universities.

B. LINE OFFICER CANDIDATE EDUCATION

The four year undergraduate schedule of The Venezuelan Naval Academy is separated into a basic naval cycle (equal for all cadets) and three different specialties--Mechanics, Electronics, and Logistics--and ultimately results in a Bachelor of Naval Science Degree. The three types of officers prepared at The Naval academy (Mechanics, Electronics, and Logistics) receive basic courses common to all candidates and three different curricula according to the specialty selected by the cadet after his first year at the academy.

The curriculum includes 38 semester hours of military studies, 18.6 semester hours of naval studies, 14.6 semester hours of studies in technical-scientific subjects, 4.5

semester hours of humanistic studies, and 23 semester hours of physical education (these studies are mandatory for all candidates) and 17.25 semester hours scientific-engineering studies for the mechanics specialist option, 15.1 semester hours for electronics specialists and 19 semester hours of administrative studies for logistics specialists. That means a total of 118.05 semester hours during the four academic years. [Ref. 7]

The military and the naval-professional courses are common for all candidates during their four years at the academy and are designed to teach the application of basic principles to the solution of general administrative problems rather than details of specific issues. These courses include most of the management studies.

The science-engineering courses for mechanics and electronics are similar in content to comparable courses taught at national universities. The emphasis is on basic principles that may be employed in resolving the complex and ever increasing technical problems. See outline of courses contained in Appendix B.

C. MANAGEMENT COURSES

As we can see in Figure 2.2, the management core studies taught at The Naval Academy have only two courses common to all three specialties. They are: Leadership and Command I, II, III, IV, and Organization and Administration Theory. A clear managerial educational disadvantage can be seen for

<u>COURSE</u>	<u>SPECIALTIES</u>		
	LOGISTICS	ELECTRONICS	MECHANICS
LEADERSHIP AND COMMAND I, II, III, IV	YES	YES	YES
ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION THEORY	YES	YES	YES
ACCOUNTING	YES	NO	NO
STATISTICS I, II	YES	NO	NO
FINANCIAL MATHEMATICS	YES	NO	NO
COSTS ANALYSIS	YES	NO	NO
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION	YES	NO	NO
BUDGETING	YES	NO	NO
ECONOMICS THEORY	YES	NO	NO
ADMINISTRATION OF MATERIAL RESOURCES	YES	NO	NO
FINANCE	YES	NO	NO
TRANSPORTATION	YES	NO	NO

Figure 2.2 Comparison of Management Courses by Specialties Taught at the Venezuelan Naval Academy.

Junior Officers who follow the technical areas of Electronics and Mechanics in contrast with Logistics Officers who have ten more courses related to the Management Sciences.

1. The Leadership and Command Courses

This course was designed mainly to develop effective leadership, but the content of these studies suggests that management is part of the global interpretation of leadership. Although it is not the intention of this thesis to analyze the difference between these two concepts--leadership and management--it is good to clarify that both terms, "manager" and "leader", although often confused, are not synonyms. Therefore, questions arise such as:

Is management properly a part of leadership?

Can a naval officer be both a leader and a manager?

These questions can be answered using the criteria that a manager coordinates the cooperative activity by executing his function of organizing, planning, leading, and controlling. Since these functions are accomplished through people, it is necessary that subordinates be persuaded to carry out their duties effectively. To reach this end, the manager employs leadership which is the process of influencing his subordinates to contribute effectively to the cooperative activity. [Ref. 8]

The Navy emphasizes the importance of proper leadership because it is considered the organization's

heart. However, good management also must be considered its head.

The Leadership and Command course points out that adequate application of leadership principles (personal example, good leading and moral principle) and techniques to command will provide the necessary force and influence which causes the group to apply maximum effort in striving toward attaining its common goal, but it does not give suitable importance to management functions.

In this study it was considered necessary that the Junior Officer must use the functions of a manager (planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling) in order to accomplish his leadership responsibilities. In this way the two questions stated earlier have been answered.

2. Organization and Administrative Theory Course

These required courses for all officer candidates are perhaps the most useful courses in management taught at The Naval Academy. Their principal objectives are:

- Analyze the importance of organizational studies.
- Solving common problems present in organizations.
- Study of basic principles of administration.
- Study of general concepts of Decision Making and Planning.
- Study of general notions of controlling.
- Analysis of budgets.

The principal problem observed in this course was that it has only 54 hours of class during the four years of studies. It is too short to be an effective course and for this reason the subjects are treated in a general way without deeper analysis. This constraint in class-time does not give cadets pursuing the specialty of Electronics or Mechanics an adequate background in Management Organization.

D. SUMMARY

The Venezuelan Naval Academy is the principal source of Junior Officers. The four-year program is divided into three different specialties: Logistics, Mechanics and Electronics.

The present curriculum at The Naval Academy includes twelve courses related to Management Sciences but only two (Leadership and Command, and Organization and Administrative Theory) are taught to cadets in the specialties of Electronics and Mechanics. This variation in the curriculum denotes a remarkable difference among the level of managerial education between Logistics Officers and Mechanics and Electronics Officers. This disadvantage for "technical" officers can be compensated for if, their managerial education is updated through new and improved management courses or by programs of self-study.

III. THE NAVAL ORGANIZATION AND THE JUNIOR OFFICER AS MANAGER

Any military element depends upon its formal organization. Clear instructions, defined lines of responsibility and authority, and knowledge of inter-relationships are essential. Without them chaos and defeat are inevitable. One process out of channel or one individual not clear as to the scope of his operation would be disastrous. In these situations, any flaw in the organization is immediately recognized and felt.

The fact is that a sound, formal organization is a necessity. Without it, waste is inherent and today we cannot tolerate such waste.

The right people can make the Naval organization work.

A. ORGANIZATION EXPECTATIONS

The Naval organization sets forth a number of requirements or expectations for officers to satisfy, although the majority of these are implicit rather than explicit.

1. Conformity to the System

An officer can change the system over time, but cannot be in conflict with it. The Naval Organization demands conformity, even to the choice of mission, duty, rules, and uniforms. Task-oriented conformities cannot be relaxed, and standards relating to hours of duty and relationships with subordinates and superiors must be very rigid. [Ref. 9]

2. Clear Identification of Institutional Mission and Role

In any position or level occupied in the organization the officer must know which missions are to be achieved and his corresponding role to achieve these missions.

It is self evident to say that organizational goals should be known before any action takes place.

3. Loyalty to His Command

Disloyalty is one of the cardinal sins in the military environment and is never tolerated. This reduces the options open to the man who is dissatisfied with the leadership provided him. [Ref. 9:p. 162]

4. Achievement of Results

The officer accepts material limitations and time constraints as part of the system. He accepts the need for achieving results or accomplishing a task regardless of those constraints. Excuses for nonperformance are simply not acceptable in the Navy's environment, even if the excuses are logical and sound. The officer is expected to bargain for the necessary resources to achieve the task, and once he accepts the task, he will be held to it.

B. WHAT THE NAVAL ORGANIZATION EXPECTS THE JUNIOR OFFICER TO LEARN

One reason why highly technically educated officers fail to build successful careers is that they do not learn from their formal education what they need in order to know to perform their duties effectively. In fact, the tasks which

are most important in getting results are usually learned on the job. Few officers ever master them, due to lack of on-the-job training.

Formal management education programs typically emphasize the development of problem-solving and decision-making skills, for instance, but give little attention to the development of skills required to find the problems that need to be solved, to plan for the attainment of desired results, or to carry out operating plans once they are made. Success in real life depends on how well an officer is able to find and exploit the opportunities that are available to him and at the same time, discover and deal with potential serious problems before they become critical.

1. Problem Solving

Preoccupation with problem solving and decision making in the officer education curriculum tends to distort managerial growth because it overdevelops an individual's analytical ability, while neglecting development of his ability to take action and to get things done. The behavior required to solve problems that have already been discovered and to make decisions based on facts gathered by others is quite different from that required to perform other functions of management. [Ref. 10]

On the one hand, problem solving and decision making in the classroom requires what psychologists call "respondent behavior". It is this type of behavior that

enables a person to get high grades on examinations, even though he may never use, later on in life, what he has learned in school.

On the other hand, success and fulfillment in work demands a different kind of behavior which psychologists have labeled "operant behavior". Finding problems and opportunities, initiating action, and following through to attain desired results requires the exercise of operant behavior. Operant behavior is neither measured by examinations nor developed by discussing in the classroom what someone else should do. It can be developed only by doing what needs to be done. [Ref. 10:p. 67]

Instructions in problem solving and decision making all too often leads to "analysis paralysis" because managerial students are required only to explain and defend their reasoning, not to carry out their decisions or even to plan realistically for their implementation. Problem solving in the classroom often deals with this through an entirely rational process, which of course, is hardly ever the case.

The greatest difficulty officers have in solving problems is the fact that emotion makes it hard for them to see and deal with their problems objectively. [Ref. 11]

Rarely do officers in formal educational programs know how to maintain an appropriate psychological distance

from their problems so that their judgments are not clouded by their emotions.

As a consequence, Junior Officers suffer their worst trauma in their duties when they discover that rational solutions to problems are not enough; they must also somehow cope with human emotions in order to get results.

2. Problem Finding

The shortcomings of instruction in problem solving, while important, are not as significant as the failure to teach problem finding. As the research of Norman H. Mackworth of The Institute of Personality Assessment and Research, has revealed:

"The distinction between the problem-solver and the problem-finder is vital [Ref. 12]."

Mr. Mackworth points out that problem finding is more important than problem solving and involves cognitive processes that are very different from problem solving and much more complex. The most gifted problem finders seldom have outstanding scholastic records, and those who do excel academically are rarely the most effective problem finders.

This skill cannot be developed merely by analyzing problems discovered by someone else; rather, it must be acquired by observing firsthand what is taking place in the naval organization. While the analytical skills needed for problem solving are important, more crucial to an officer's success is the development of the perceptual skills needed to identify problems long before they are evidenced by even the most advanced management information system. Since

these perceptual skills are extremely difficult to develop in the classroom they are most often allocated to on-the-job training. [Ref. 11: p. 67]

3. Opportunity Finding

An officer's problem-finding ability is exceeded in importance only by his opportunity-finding ability. Maximization of opportunities is a meaningful, indeed a precise, definition of the managerial job. It implies that effectiveness rather than efficiency is also essential in a day-to-day naval job. The pertinent question is not how to do things right, but how to find the right things to do and to concentrate resources and efforts on them.

C. ATTRIBUTES JUNIOR OFFICERS SHOULD POSSESS

Working as manager-leader, the officer should possess and enhance the following qualities [Ref. 13]:

1. Tolerance

Since all people have faults and shortcomings, it is not advantageous for an officer to be a perfectionist. A good officer must be tolerant of a person's shortcomings in the same way he respects and recognizes each person's strong points.

2. Ability to Reason

Many officers believe that an argument can be decided on facts alone. However, when a subordinate really believes that he is right, and the officer knows that he is wrong, logical reasoning may not work. In cases like this,

it may be necessary to cater to emotions, to "bring people around".

3. Empathy

The narrow definition of empathy is the capacity to feel what others feel. Empathy should be spontaneous, not consciously turned on and off. One important facet of empathy is saving face for the other fellow, which ties in with the previous attribute of using emotionally oriented arguments. Few people like to be proven wrong, even when the facts show they are wrong. Hence, some form of face-saving for the subordinate is extremely important for his emotional well being.

4. Good Emotional Control

The officer who is always losing his temper or showing irritation with people will rarely command the respect of his subordinates. This does not mean that the officer can not get mad occasionally. This is only human. But when there is an underlying current of emotionalism between the officer and his people, it quickly undermines any confidence his subordinates may have in him.

5. Readiness to Give Others Credit

The officer who appears to always be right (even if he is always right) generally has difficulty motivating his subordinates to work creatively. It is beneficial to meet people more than half way in handing out credit for various successes.

6. Willingness to Listen

Many officers feel that because they are the boss they should do most of the talking. When they do this, subordinates naturally stop speaking up. The result is the "drying up" of sources of information from down the line and the officers become ill-informed on important happenings in their areas.

7. Quick to Praise

An officer will praise his subordinates for a job well done and will reprimand them by constructive criticism for jobs poorly done. An officer should not deliver off-the-cuff criticism that can degrade dignity.

8. Quickness to See Good in Others

If an officer does not have the ability to quickly see good, he owes it to himself to develop this trait by being more optimistic--looking for good points first, not the bad ones.

9. Recognition of Differences

If the officer recognizes that some of his people are self-confident and optimistic, he should approach them differently than he does others who may lack self-confidence and need to be assured more often. The officer should also try to aid these people in helping themselves to strengthen their weak points; this kind of coaching usually improves work efficiency.

10. Lack of Suspicion

Mutual trust is necessary to generate confidence in the subordinate. If the officer is a cynic and does not believe in people, this will be reflected in poor morale, poor work and a corresponding cynical attitude on the part of his subordinates.

11. Confidence and Self-Assurance

If the officer readily displays these characteristics, they will rub off on his people. The reverse is also true; if an officer does not have self-confidence, his attitude will pervade the group and will be reflected in poor work output.

12. Flexibility

An officer cannot afford to be inflexible, because he is dealing primarily with people rather than things, ideas, or facts. Since people exhibit varying behavior under different circumstances, flexibility is a must in order to cope with these changing situations.

13. Fairness

Interestingly, an officer who is consistently fair can on occasion be extremely unfair and yet forgiven by his subordinates. The same act committed by an officer who is usually arbitrary and capricious would be met by great resentment.

14. Recognition of Differing Views

The officer must recognize not only that two or more points of view can exist; on occasion, more than one

may also be correct. This attribute of a mature officer can earn him a great deal of respect from his people.

15. Good Sense of Humor

Probably the most important part of a good sense of humor is the ability to laugh at oneself. This single attribute can earn mountains of respect for the officer in situations where more scientific techniques would be to no avail.

16. Freedom from Prejudice

The antonym of the word "prejudice" is "judgement". Hence, prejudice can be equated with lack of judgement. Certainly the officer must be free of minority-group prejudice to be fair and effective with a subordinate from a minority group. We all have prejudices, but we should continually strive to subjugate them.

17. Ability for Self-Evaluation

An officer can attain a fairly objective view of himself by seeking criticism from others, i.e., his superior officers, his colleagues, and his subordinates. Reading books and taking college courses in the social sciences will also help. If the officer can identify his faults and work on them, his value will increase tremendously.

D. SUMMARY

The basic organizational parts of the Navy are its physical environment, its human resources, and its missions

or goals. The officer's primary managerial task is to bring these parts into a state of equilibrium.

Today's Junior Officer is faced with four significant challenges: dependence on sophisticated technology and job specialization; frequent and rapid shifts in maritime missions; the trend toward a more open and collaborative management process; and youth's changed attitudes towards work. In response to these challenges the Navy could employ educational training techniques designed to provide the Junior Officer with new effective and flexible management tools. Admirals need to become thoroughly familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of this educational program, for it is only through their personal commitment and involvement that it can be tailored for and put to good use by the Navy line officers. [Ref. 14]

IV. IMPROVEMENT OF MANAGERIAL PLANNING AND DECISION MAKING

A. PLANNING

Planning can be considered as a set of managerial activities or processes designed to prepare the organization (Fleet, Ship, Division, or Department) for the future and to ensure that decisions regarding the use of people and resources (the means) help achieve organizational objectives (the ends). The planning process involves determining objectives, examining the environment and forecasting changes, developing plans accordingly, and adjusting strategy as feedback on effectiveness indicates. [Ref. 15] In Figure 4.1 a general model of the Planning Process is presented.

1. Responsibility of Planning

Planning is initially the responsibility of Admirals and Senior Officers, but Junior Officers plan too. There are three managerial styles requiring the participation of subordinates in planning.

A traditional manager accepts total responsibility for planning. The consultative manager also accepts the ultimate responsibility, but he involves the subordinates in the planning process to a limited extent. The participative manager requires the work group to take an active part in

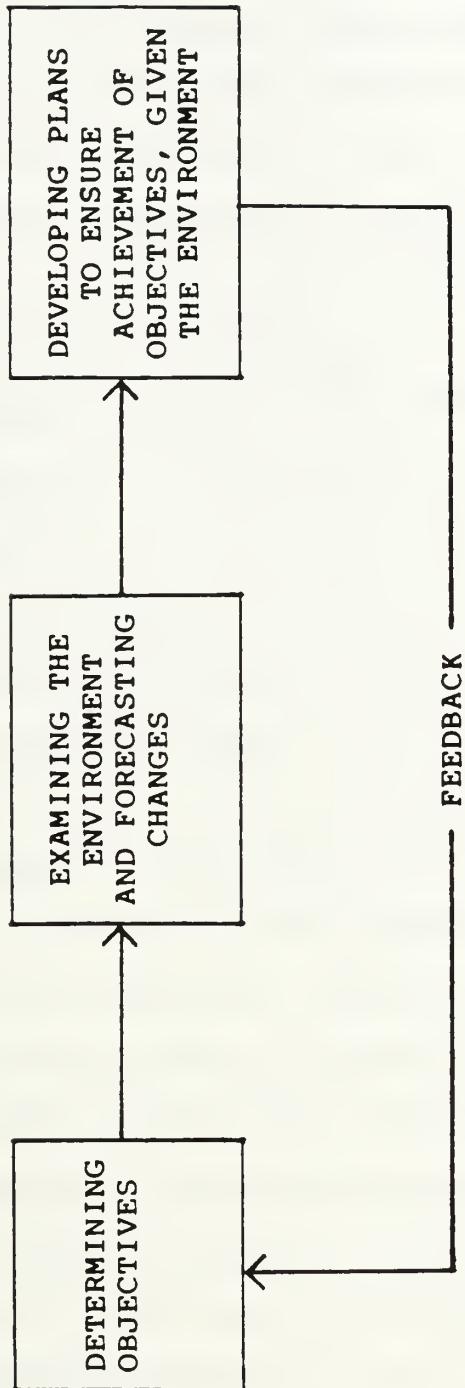


Figure 4.1 A Model of the Planning Process.

the planning process. The officer's attitudes toward people will determine the managerial style chosen.

2. Reasons for Planning

Managers plan for four reasons:

- Planning leads to organizational success.
- Planning leads to feelings of success and satisfaction by the organization's people.
- Planning helps a manager cope with change.
- Planning is necessary for effective performance of the other management functions. [Ref. 15: p. 201]

a. Planning Leads to Organizational Success

Planning does not guarantee success. But experience has shown that organizations that plan consistently outperform nonplanning organizations. But not only is the organization's success greater; the manager's ability to predict is better.

b. Planning Benefits the Organization's People

Knowing the objectives of the organization helps the people relate what they are doing to meaningful outcomes (ends). The planning process requires managers to define the organization's objectives. If people are involved in this process, they can more effectively tie what they are doing (the means) to the organization's objectives (the ends). Persons who know what is expected of them feel successful and find their work meaningful when they achieve well defined objectives.

c. Planning Helps a Manager Cope with Change

Organizations, like civilizations, rise, stabilize, decline, or disappear. Likewise, managers have to cope with a changing environment. This is done best through planning. The manager who is able, through planning, to anticipate and prepare for numerous possible changes in the organization has more control than the manager who does not look and plan ahead.

d. Planning is Necessary for Effective Performance of Management Functions

Without planning, organization and control--two other vital management functions--cannot be effective. Effective planning enables managers to design good control and evaluation for their organizations. [Ref. 15:p. 204]

3. Management by Objectives (MBO)

One of the most popular systems which can be used by the Junior Officer is to establish objectives by Management by Objectives (MBO). When MBO is used, the officer must formulate very specific, measurable objectives for the organization or work unit (Department or Division). In the MBO approach, the objectives are developed jointly by the officer and his superior. It requires that information be provided about results achieved versus the original objectives.

a. Starting an MBO Program

Senior officers must take the initiative in starting an MBO program, making it clear why they believe

in it and indicating over and over that they are very interested in it.

An adequate training program in MBO is necessary for all Junior Officers. All parts of the organization must participate.

In setting up an MBO system the following steps should be taken:

- Specify the objectives of the program.
- Name the departments and units that will participate.
- Clarify relationships between departments that are affected by MBO.
- Assign responsibility for MBO activities at each level; make sure that job descriptions are clear.
- Establish time deadlines for each stage of MBO and check back to see that these are met.

B. DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is the acid test for all officers. The officer's ability to reach the right conclusion as to what to do in a given situation, his courage in doing it, and his skill in persuading others to accept his decision once he has made it are the three factors that constitute an officer's success in leadership and management.

An officer's decisions will determine his qualifications for executive command and help his superiors decide how much responsibility they will give him. Everyone cannot be an admiral--captains and commanders are needed, too. And some

people are happier as privates. It is up to the officer to establish his own objectives.

As nearly as possible, decisions are based on fact, and in this respect they are scientific. But intuition and judgement must be substituted where facts are unavailable. An officer may find that decision-making is an art based on a science.

The following sections of this chapter are intended to improve an officer's ability as a decision-maker by showing how to analyze the process. If an officer is completely aware of all the elements involved and governs his actions accordingly, he will achieve sound results. The officer will know where the errors in decision-making lie from both commission and omission and how to avoid them.

1. The Decision-Making Process

Because of the difficulties in making a decision, certain conditions must exist before a decision takes place. Kenneth MacCrimmon has listed four such conditions.

[Ref. 16]

- A gap must exist between the desired state and the existing state.
- The gap must be large enough to be noticeable and thus perceived as deserving attention.
- The decision maker must be motivated to reduce this gap.
- The decision maker must believe that he can do something about the gap.

If these conditions are met, the decision-making process can function. The standard model of the decision-making process is shown in Figure 4.2 and serves as the basis of this study.

Stage 1: Definition of the Problem

The first step involves diagnosing the situation so an officer can focus on the real problem, not just on the symptoms. Defining the problem must be accompanied by a wide search for information. The more information that is acquired, the more likely it is that the problem will be defined accurately.

The following are among the characteristics of a good problem definition:

- Differentiate fact from opinion or speculation.
- Specify underlying causes.
- Tap all involved individuals for information.
- State the problem explicitly.
- Identify what standard is violated.
- Avoid stating the problem as a disguised solution.

Stage 2: Generate Alternative Solutions

This step involves postponing the selection of one solution until several alternatives have been proposed. N.R.F. Maier has found that the quality of the final problem solution can be significantly enhanced by considering multiple alternatives. Judgement and evaluation, therefore, must be postponed so the first acceptable solution suggested is not the one that is immediately selected. [Ref. 17]

A common problem in managerial decision-making is that alternatives are evaluated as they are proposed, so the first acceptable (although frequently not optimal) one is selected.

Some attributes for generating good alternative solutions are the following:

- Postpone evaluating alternatives.
- Be sure all involved individuals generate alternatives.

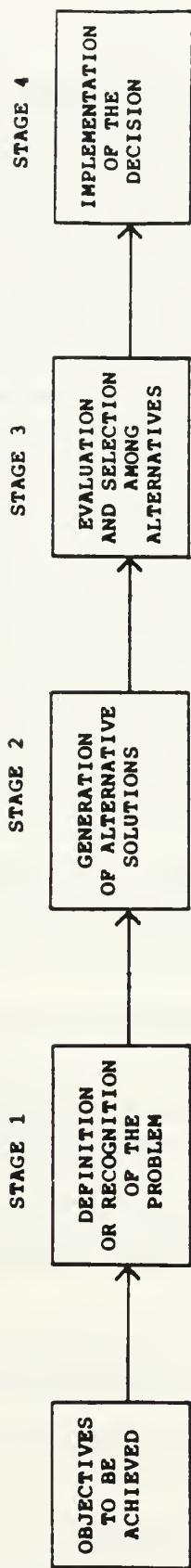


Figure 4.2 The Decision-Making Process.

- Alternative solutions are consistent with organizational goals or policies.
- Alternatives relate to both the short-term and the long-term.
- Alternatives build on one another. Bad ideas may become good ideas if added to by someone else.
- Alternatives solve the problem that has been defined. Another problem may also be important, but it should be ignored if it does not directly affect the problem being considered.

Stage 3: Evaluate and Select an Alternative

This step involves careful weighing of the advantages and disadvantages of the proposed alternatives before making a final selection. The alternatives must be judged in terms of the extent to which they will solve the problem without causing other unanticipated problems, the extent to which all the individuals involved will accept the alternative and the extent to which the alternative fits within the organizational constraints. [Ref. 15:p. 291]

Given the natural tendency to select the first satisfactory solution that is proposed, this step deserves particular attention in problem solving skills.

Some characteristics of good evaluation are the following:

- Alternatives are evaluated relative to an optimal standard rather than a satisfactory standard.
- Evaluation of alternatives occurs systematically so each is given consideration. "Short-circuiting" evaluation inhibits selection of optimal alternatives.
- Alternatives are evaluated in terms of the goals of the organization and the individuals involved.
- Alternatives are evaluated in terms of their probable effects.
- The alternative selected is stated explicitly.

Stage 4: Implement and Follow Up the Solution

Implementation of any solution requires sensitivity to possible resistance from those who will be affected by it. Almost any change engenders some resistance. Therefore, the officer must be careful to select a strategy that maximizes the probability that the solution will be accepted and fully implemented. Generally speaking, participation by others in the implementation of a solution will increase its acceptance and decrease resistance.

Effective implementation also requires some follow-up to make certain that implementation is occurring, that negative side-effects are being prevented, and that the problem has really been solved. Follow-up also serves as feedback function as well as by providing information that can be used to improve future problem solutions. [Ref. 18]

Some attributes of effective implementation are the following:

- Implement at the proper time and in the right sequence.
- Provide opportunities for feedback.
- Engender acceptance of others who are being affected.
- Establish an ongoing monitoring system.
- Evaluation of success is based on problem solution not on side benefits. Although the solution may provide positive outcomes, unless it solves the problem being considered, it is unsuccessful.

C. SUMMARY: GUIDELINES FOR DECISION-MAKERS

In summary, the Junior Officer can use the following guidelines to improve his ability as a decision-maker:

1. Base decisions on a deep knowledge of the facts and once a plan of action is determined, carry it out firmly.
2. When undecided on a question but forced, perhaps reluctantly, to make a decision, do not reveal uncertainty to subordinates.

3. Do not delay making a decision hoping something will occur which will take you off the hook.
4. When making a decision or when in the process of doing so, do not openly agonize about whether or not it is right.
5. When a decision has been made, follow through and make absolutely certain that each person responsible for carrying it out knows exactly what is expected of him.
6. When delegating responsibility to a subordinate for carrying out a decision, also delegate the authority necessary for it to be implemented.
7. Do not permit bias, prejudice, or preconceived opinions to affect decisions.
8. Do not vacillate in decision-making or permit superiors to force wrong though fear of disagreement.
9. If a decision does not work out, be willing to accept the responsibility for failure.

V. IMPROVEMENT OF MANAGERIAL ORGANIZING AND LEADERSHIP

A. ORGANIZING

Organizing is the management process by which the work is divided among units and employees (division of labor) and then these units and jobs are linked together to form a unified system (coordination).

This part of the chapter deals with how an officer organizes tasks into jobs and how these jobs are defined for subordinate understanding and organizing departments.

1. Job Design

Job design consists of specifying the task of the job, the methods used on the job, and how the job relates to other jobs in the organization. It can be performed by Junior Officers, at times with the advice of Senior Officers or specialized engineers.

a. Factors Influencing Job Design

The factors which could influence job design include:

1. Subordinate factors such as abilities and attitude/motivation.
2. Economic factors such as available resources.
3. Technological factors such as equipment, tools, and techniques.
4. Navy requirements, such as time, type of mission, and rules.

5. Commanding objectives, strategy and philosophy, such as level of priorities and safety.

b. Basic Job Design Strategies

There are three basic job design strategies: one relies on craft jobs, another on specialization, and the third on enrichment. The specialization job design strategy and craft jobs strategy are the easiest to apply in the naval environment, because these strategies produce better results.

2. Job Definition

Once the job is designed, it must be defined. Job definition is the process by which officers communicate the tasks and standards of performance to subordinates.

The purpose of job definition is to provide role clarity, a mutual understanding between officer and subordinate of exactly what the task and minimum performance level are. In order to avoid role ambiguity it is important to develop compressed and clear job descriptions and have officers and subordinates discuss the descriptions with each other relating them to their own expectations. In the case of a bad match between subordinate and job or task, a new placement is the best solution. [Ref. 15:p. 342]

a. Job Definition Process

The job definition process begins with job analysis. Job analysis is the process by which an officer gathers data about a job, such as work activities, machines, tools and equipment used.

A job description is a written statement which details the duties and responsibilities of a job. A job description is prepared after the job analysis is completed. It is imperative that the job description be kept up to date, be complete, and be based on job objectives.

Job specifications are written statements which list the qualifications a person needs to perform a job effectively. Job specifications are proposed from job descriptions. They clarify the skill and experience necessary to accomplish the task.

If job analysis, job description, and job specifications are properly completed and prepared task clarity should be easy to achieve.

B. LEADERSHIP

There are many factors that determine the skill of an officer. Of all these factors that go into achieving success in a naval environment, the most important is leadership.

Regardless of the old saying, leaders are not born--they are developed. Some people have more aptitude than others, but no man becomes a great leader unless he develops within himself the traits necessary to be a leader. The easiest way to find what those traits are and learn how to acquire them is by studying the leaders who have come before.

Great leaders have much in common. A good leader wins the support of his people because they have confidence in

his judgement. He sees his job in terms of its specific objectives. A good leader has a firm grasp of the technical aspects of his duties. At the same time he is conscious of his weaknesses and does not try to conceal them from himself. To accomplish his aims he surrounds himself with capable subordinates.

1. Basic Character Qualities for Leadership

It follows from these thoughts about leadership that the officer who is to be entrusted with the increasing responsibilities of managing must have demonstrated the ability and willingness to undertake such responsibilities, the potential of desire for growth, and finally, certain basic qualities of character if he is to justify the time, effort, and expense required for his education and development. Among the character qualities of prime importance in the task of managing are the following:

- Integrity.
- Courage, vigor, and self-confidence.
- Wisdom, judgement, and intelligence.
- Flexibility of mind, resourcefulness.
- Vision, imagination.
- Human understanding and humility.

Hence the expected return on the investment in manager education and development calls for standards that will assure selection of men with abilities and qualities conducive to development and who are likely to profit from

the experience. To quote the late Professor Nathaniel Contor:

The development of a manager is essentially the development of the person. The quality of management performance cannot be separated from the quality of the people who are managers. [Ref. 20]

2. Education for Leadership

Although manager education, as defined, seeks to improve the effectiveness of managing at all levels of responsibility, the basic need and aim is to develop present and potential leadership ability.

It may be argued that the kind of leadership that is responsible for major policy decisions, for setting objectives, designing the structure and process of the organization, and assuring its survival and growth, is needed primarily in the form of the Commander in Chief of the Navy and his staff. While this is true, this thesis maintains that those in key positions of lesser rank in the organizational hierarchy must prepare themselves for and bear their share of these basic responsibilities. They have similar obligations with respect to the unit organizations for which they are responsible, and yet they must manage as part of the whole. Furthermore, it is from the ranks of Junior and Senior Officers that top level naval positions will be filled.

If Junior Officers do not understand the nature of organizational leadership the organization will be ill-equipped for survival. Hence, Junior Officer education and

development must be aimed at improving management and leadership at all levels--this is the basic goal.

3. What Subordinates Expect of a Junior Officer as Leader

The Junior Officer must understand exactly what his subordinates demand of his leadership, and in daily living a Junior Officer must do his best to provide it.

Here are some general expectations which will help officers improve their leadership:

- Subordinates expect to be kept informed of the work of the department and its objectives.
- They expect to be told individually how they measure up to their job.
- Subordinates expect credit for jobs well done.
- They expect constructive criticism, but resent arbitrary, unfair or spur-of-the-moment comments on their performance.
- They expect a sympathetic interest in their problems.
- Subordinates expect to be chief source of information about the organization and its policies.
- They expect a "happy ship", to make the department a pleasant place to work.
- They expect to be told of possibilities for promotion.
- They expect help to improve their job skills both as a group and individually.
- They expect to be encouraged to greater effort.
- They expect well timed plans and coordination in their activities.

C. SUMMARY

An officer must use his skills and his human insight as does an orchestra leader--to capture individual satisfaction

in his job in the organization and to create fulfillment that holds the subordinate to his part. No collection of cute tricks of enticement or showmanship can do that for him. An officer's job is to provide that recognition of roles and functions within the group that will permit each member to satisfy and fulfill some major motive or interest.

VI. IMPROVEMENT OF MANAGERIAL CONTROL

In previous chapters it was explained how officers are responsible for planning and organizing the Navy's resources and how interpersonal skills, such as leadership, structure the officer's job. But these processes are not enough to achieve organizational objectives.

A. CONTROL: A NECESSARY MANAGERIAL TOOL

Controls are necessary to achieve objectives. Good control leads to greater organizational effectiveness. Factors in the naval environment could change and these changes affect organizational plans. Personnel make mistakes. And not all people are motivated to achieve the results needed to keep the organization on its planned course. They may not do their jobs at all. Therefore, control is necessary to resolve problems and adjust plans and objectives or to take corrective action as the need arises.

The term control has a somewhat negative connotation. This should not be. As William Newman has pointed out, controls are normal, pervasive in all societies and organizations, and positive. [Ref. 21]

Just as a thermostat is a positive device to keep heating and air conditioning systems functioning well, so

controls in organizations are positive aids in achieving desired ends.

B. CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE CONTROL

As in business, effective control in the naval environment has a number of characteristics. First, they are cost-effective. This means that they involve as little cost as possible in terms of time, man-hour effort, and money while still maintaining their value. Second, they are acceptable to subordinates. Controls, like laws, are not effective if the persons subject to them feel they are unnecessary, poorly designed and implemented, or harmful to their psychological well-being. Third, it is important for controls to be well designed in several respects. Controls need only be as detailed as the plan they help implement. A fourth characteristic is that controls are strategic. It is impossible and undesirable to try to control all aspects of an organization. Controls should focus only on the most important objective. Finally, controls must measure and be objective. Ideally controls measure specific behaviors and outputs. Vague control standards are more difficult to administer.

C. THE PROCESS OF CONTROL

Although the most desirable system of control called Cybernetic Control Process is not fully applicable to non-business organizations such as the navy, universities or

museums, it can be a useful guide to implement the process of control described below. [Ref. 15:p. 608]

1. Setting Objectives

Objectives must be set in measurable terms for individuals as well as work groups. In the case of the Navy, objectives can be the number of missions completed or percentage of readiness for combat.

2. Establishing Predictors of the Objectives

Effective managers do not wait for a specific time to find out whether objectives are being achieved. They look for regular, reliable, and prompt indicators.

3. Establishing Standards of Performance

Insofar as possible, each objective should specify quantitatively the minimum acceptable standards of performance.

4. Evaluating Results Against Standards

When the manager sees results early enough to act on them, he determines which are critical, which bear watching, and which can be temporarily ignored based on the amount of their divergence from standards and the significance of items involved.

5. Action to Reinforce the Positive and Correct the Negative Results

Many people have the idea that control is only negative. This is not so. Leadership style determines whether the impact of control is negative or positive. The effective manager regularly reinforces outstanding subor-

effective manager regularly reinforces outstanding subordinate performance and positive response of work units to the organization's objectives and plans.

When there are problems, the manager attends to the most serious first, determining what they are and then deciding how to help improve the subordinate's problems or unit's performance. Corrective action is taken only if the employee or unit does not perform up to capacity after receiving help.

Thus, the control process serves to prevent disasters by determining how the enterprise is faring relative to its objective and plans and by taking action to ensure good results.

D. TYPES OF CONTROL

Four types of control are distinguished according to when the control is exerted. These are the following [Ref. 1:p. 578]:

1. Pre-action Controls

Pre-action controls ensure that before an action is developed the necessary human, material, and financial resources have been estimated or budgeted.

2. Steering Controls

In this type of control the emphasis is on a future time frame. With accurate forecasting of what will happen, the manager can take action before a total operation is complete to ensure its success.

3. Yes-No Control

With this kind of control, work is stopped at various predetermined times or when certain events take place and cannot continue without a screening decision to go ahead. This is the most widely used type of control.

4. Post-Action Control

With this type of control, when the operation is completed, the results are reviewed. Although nothing can be done about the cycle that was completed, the review serves as a guide to ways for preventing future mishaps.

E. SUMMARY

In designing a control system, officers must decide on the types and number of measurements to be used, who will set the standards, how flexible the standards will be, the frequency of controls, and the direction that feedback will take.

For a control system to be effective, it must be accurate, timely, objective, focused in key performance areas and strategic control points, economically realistic, organizationally realistic, flexible, prescriptive and acceptable to organization members. These characteristics can be applied to controls at all levels of the organization.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusion of this thesis is that the fundamental significance of management education is its effectiveness in enhancing the success of Junior Officers in their immediate tasks.

No longer can it be assumed that good officers-managers are born. It is necessary to develop their skill through education training and experience.

The ability of an officer to manage effectively will be of benefit to not only the officer involved, but will operate in the interest of the Navy as a whole.

From the review of the education received by officer candidates at The Naval Academy it was determined that emphasis be placed on management education. From this review it was concluded that there is currently a low emphasis placed on the management development of cadets pursuing studies in the specialties of Electronics and Mechanics, which comprise almost 70 percent of the officers graduating each year at The Naval Academy.

The number of officers (Junior and Senior) with graduate courses in management is minimal. This shortage could have serious consequences and the indirect implication is that in

the Venezuelan Navy, managerial positions are operating on intuition, guess, and good luck.

The average time of five years that Junior Officers must wait until they begin to receive courses related to Managerial Sciences is too long. During this time the Officer confronts many managerial problems which if are not solved adequately can prejudice their careers.

The Naval Academy's leadership courses overlap management development areas. These courses can only be assumed to cover some of the practices of sound management. This will depend on the specific elements covered in each leadership program and the quality of instructors and personnel putting on the program.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. That "core" management courses taught at The Naval Academy be equalized for all officer candidates in order that all officers have the same background in management and in this way the Navy can measure justly and effectively the quality of Junior Officers' management education.

These "core" management courses could be composed of the following studies:

- General Management, including Principle of Organization.
- Personnel Management.
- Material Management.
- Economics.
- Principles of Accounting.
- Managerial Accounting.

2. That the Chief of Naval Education implement self-study courses and conferences or seminars in management areas such as: Planning, Organizing, Decision-making, Leadership, and Controlling during the period that Junior Officers are not receiving any instruction or training.
3. That short training courses be established, to provide management education and training for officers not included in the postgraduate program.
4. And finally, that the Navy study the possibility of creating a Management School to cover all the future necessities of management in the Navy.

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

RESEARCH IN MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

Typical questions asked in the research to obtain information about the Managerial Education of Junior Officers of the Venezuelan Navy:

Question No. 1 - In your opinion: Do Junior Officers fill manager positions?

All answers to this question were affirmative.

Question No. 2 - Do you consider that the level of management courses taught at The Naval Academy are enough to manage a Department aboard a ship?

Eighty-five percent of interviewees answered "no" to this question, but the other 15 percent considered that Logistic Officers had a better background adequate to carry out their duties. It is appropriate to emphasize that Logistic Officers receive instruction in administrative subjects, because they have a different curriculum as shown in Appendix B.

Question No. 3 - Which are the weak aspects in management that you found in a Junior Officer?

Most of the answers were related to problems in Planning, Decision-Making, Motivation, Control and Safety in summary the basic functions of management.

Question No. 4 - Which are the strong features that you found in the education of a Junior Officer?

Most of the answers were related to the technical and professional areas, other answers included Leadership.

Question No. 5 - Do you consider that lack of Knowledge in Management Sciences prejudice the career of Junior Officers?

All answers of this question were affirmative.

Question No. 6 - Why do you consider that a better preparation in management could help Junior Officers?

Most of the answers to this question maintained that a better education in management could compensate for their lack of experience and this education would help them to do better in their duties.

Question No. 7 - How long must a Junior Officer wait until he can learn more about management?

Most of interviewees answered, that they waited from five to seven years until they received more knowledge about management.

Question No. 8 - Do you consider that management subjects can be taught by self-study courses?

Eighty percent of the interviewees answered that it is possible, whenever these courses were supported by seminars and conferences with experts in the subject. The other 20 percent felt that management courses must be taught in a regular class.

APPENDIX B

OUTLINE OF COURSES TAUGHT AT THE NAVAL ACADEMY

BASIC NAVAL CYCLE

FIRST YEAR

First Semester (Common for all cadets)

- Naval History
- Introduction to Naval Systems
- Military Legislation I
- Research Techniques
- Mathematics I
- Programming I
- Languages I

Second Semester (Common for all cadets)

- Oceanography
- Meteorology
- Leadership and Command I
- Basic Techniques of Combat
- Mathematics II
- Physics I
- Languages II
- Drawing

SECOND YEAR

Third Semester (Common for all cadets)

- Navigation I
- Naval Cinematics
- Services and Equipments
- Military Legislation II
- Mathematics III
- Physics II
- Chemistry I

Fourth Semester

Logistic Specialty

- Navigation II
- Naval Communications I
- Leadership and Command II
- Electricity I
- Statistics I
- Accounting I
- Programming II
- Physics III

Mechanics Specialty

- Navigation II
- Naval Communications I
- Leadership and Command II
- Mathematics IV
- Naval Materials
- Chemistry II
- Physics III

Electronics Specialty

- Navigation II
- Naval Communications I
- Leadership and Command II
- Mathematics IV
- Electronic Circuits I
- Physics III
- Instruments

THIRD YEAR

Fifth Semester

Logistic Specialty

- Navigation III
- Naval Communications II
- Electricity II
- Statistics II
- Financial Accounting
- Corrosion
- Organization and Administration Theory
- Cost Analysis

Mechanics Specialty

- Naval Communications II
- Thermodynamics
- Mechanics
- Electricity II
- Corrosion
- Organization and Administration Theory

Electronics Specialty

- Navigation III
- Naval Communications II
- Electronics Circuits II
- Electronics I
- Linear Systems
- Corrosion

Sixth Semester

Logistics Specialty

- Weapons I
- International Maritime Law
- Leadership and Command III
- Electronics I
- Personnel Administration
- Mercantile Law
- Budget
- Instrumentation

Mechanics Specialty

- International Maritime Law
- Leadership and Command III
- Naval Weapons
- Mechanics of Solids
- Mechanics of Fluids
- Electricity II
- Instrumentation

Electronics Specialty

- Weapons I
- International Maritime Law
- Leadership and Command III
- Electronic Circuits III
- Electronics II
- Wave Theory

FOURTH YEAR

Seventh Semester

Logistic Specialty

- Weapons II
- Naval Logistics
- Ship Theory
- Leadership and Command IV
- Electronics II
- Confidentiality
- Economics Theory
- Administration of Material Resources

Mechanics Specialty

- Heat Transfer
- Naval Logistics
- Ship Theory
- Leadership and Command IV
- Naval Systems
- Electric Machinery
- Machine Elements
- Mechanisms

Electronics Specialty

- Weapons II
- Naval Logistics
- Ship Theory
- Leadership and Command IV
- Electromagnetism
- Digital Technology
- Organization and Administrative Theory

Eighth Semester

Logistics Specialty

- Naval Tactics
- Naval Logistics II
- Electronics Naval Systems
- Operations and Research
- Armed Forces Finances
- Transport
- History of Culture
- Military Legislation IV

Mechanics Specialty

- Naval Tactics
- Military Legislation IV
- Naval Machines I, II and III
- Maintenance and Reliability
- Electricity Applied to Ships
- History of culture

Electronic Specialty

- Naval Tactics
- Military Legislation IV
- Communications Systems
- Control Systems
- Digital Systems
- Seminar
- History of Culture

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